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ABSTRACT

This publication contains six "capsulized" reports concerned with research in learning resources centers and school libraries, and the role of school media specialists. Each report follows the same format design, i.e., questions previewing the topic: introduction, methodology, findings, conclusions, and marginal notes: and a pathfinder to the topic or to the methodology used in the study. Reports included are: (1) Locally-Based Research: Guidelines for the Novice by Janet G. Stroud, (2) Evaluation in Library Media Centers by Ned A. Stokes and Dorothy M. Shields, (3) Materials Students Use: A Direct Measurement Approach by M. Carl Drott and Jacqueline C. Mancall, (4) Library Media Specialists: What Role Should They Play? by Fred C. Pfister, (5) Cooperative Library Services Between Public Libraries and School Libraries: Three Studies reported by Blanche Woolls, and (6) On Change and the Change Process by Richard S. Podemski. The pathfinders appended to the studies include references. (FM)

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SCHOOL LIBRARY MEDIA CENTERS: RESEARCH STUDIES AND THE STATE-OF-THE-ART

Six research briefs
collected and edited

by

David V. Loertscher

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INTRODUCTION

For a number of years, the Research Committee of the American Association of School Librarians has recognized the need to communicate research findings generated in the area of the school library media center to those who could use the research findings, i.e., school library media specialists, teachers, administrators, district library media specialists, and others interested in this entity within the public schools.

The Committee has made a number of efforts to spur communication of research to the field including forums at national meetings, national workshops, regional workshops, and periodical articles. Discussions with the ERIC Clearinghouse on Information Resources have resulted in arrangements with individual members of the Research Committee to test out capsulized research briefs.

Our objective has been to present research findings to the practitioner in such a way that:

1. Communication is clear to an audience not necessarily oriented toward research methodology and terminology.

2. The description of a specific study or multiple research analyses would take a minimum of time but would provide a key to in-depth study if needed by the reader.

The format design was formulated by the editor and Jacqueline Mancall of Drexel University and is essentially the same for each of the articles:

1. An advance organizer (questions previewing the topic).

2. Report of the research consisting of:
   a. an introduction
   b. methodology
   c. findings
   d. conclusions addressed to various groups
   e. marginal notes summarizing in-depth discussion

3. A pathfinder to the topic or the methodology used in the study.

Reader reaction to this method of presentation is invited by the editor and any member of the AASL Research Committee.

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LOCALLY-BASED RESEARCH:

GUIDELINES FOR THE NOVICE

by

Janet G. Stroud

Library Media and Instructional Development
Purdue University

PREVIEW AND QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

Locally-based research has much to offer the school library media specialist. It can provide the basis for more effective decision-making and can help satisfy the increasing demands for accountability.

Why engage in locally-based resarch when the results aren't widely generalizeable?

Is it possible to carry out locally-based research without having formal training in research design and statistical analysis?

Why can locally-based research be more valuable than that which is performed at the university level?

NOTES

Introduction

Introduction

The need for locally-based research--research done at the local level by local people--is escalating due to the increasing need to prove the cost effectiveness of educational programs, a situation which has been brought about by rising costs, decreasing enrollments, and ever-dwindling budgets. As the purchasing power of library media centers diminishes each year, we scrutinize more carefully the cost benefits, for example, of purchasing paperback books rather than hardbacks, or the cost effectiveness of ordering commercially prepared cataloging as opposed to doing it locally. Put more succinctly, when money is scarce, there is greater emphasis on maximizing the benefits derived from expenditures.

The necessary focus on accountability increases the need for locally-based research.

The benefits that accrue from locally-based research efforts are many: locally-based research can provide the basis upon which better, more rational decisions are made, and it can provide the basis for improving existing procedures and methods of operation within the media center, as well as immediate answers to questions that arise, thereby eliminating the need to wait for the results of a larger, formal research study.

Decision-making is improved when decisions are based on facts rather than intuition.

Perhaps one of the biggest benefits to be derived from locally-based resarch, though, is that it aids communication with others. The library media professional is constantly called upon to justify the money and resources that are going to the library media center and the most effective method of doing this is utilizing actual data.

Locally-based research can provide solid justification for library media programs.

School library media professionals are in a most unique position--they know, better than anyone else, the problems they're facing, they have more effective resources with which to attack those problems, and they clearly have better accessibility to the situation. The only thing they may be lacking is research expertise and that deficiency can be easily overcome.

School library media professionals are in the best position to conduct research.

Creating a Methodology

Creating a Methodology

The procedures necessary for implementing research at the local level are really no different than those followed on a larger scale: identify a problem, formulate a research question or hypothesis, gather information, interpret the information that's been gathered, and decide upon the appropriate action to take.

The most important prerequisite for engaging in research is an open mind and a questioning attitude--on the part of the media staff, the teachers, and the

The atmosphere in the school and, more specifically, in the media center, must be conducive to experimentation.

administration. A research effort begins with a problem that occurs, a need that is recognized, or a question that is raised.

Look around. Are there any areas in the media center which could use some improvement? Are there any routines or procedures that seem to be cumbersome and time-consuming? What new techniques are available to improve librarian/teacher/student interaction? Develop a greater awareness of the situation and question practices that have been followed for years as a matter of course. Many people fall heir to practices that have little or no real value but which continue unquestioned.

Most important, discuss ideas with other people; it's through interaction with others that the commonality of problems becomes apparent. Discussion can also help bring the problem into focus and pinpoint aspects of the situation not previously examined.

Discuss potential research ideas with other people.

Just as important is reading professional journals, since this activity also provides the opportunity to focus in on the more salient aspects of the problem, to discover possible solutions others have effected, and to consider other issues relevant to the problem.

Review the literature to gain further information about the problem.

This is also a good time to examine the merits of pursuing this particular problem. Is a study of this problem feasible in terms of time, money, and staff necessary to carry it out? There are many problems deserving of study that are simply beyond the resources of a school library media specialist. Alternative methods of dealing with the problem may need to be considered. Keep the study simple and easy to handle; a study that causes major disruption in the media center or the school is not likely to elicit much encouragement and support from the administrative staff.

Make sure that you have the resources necessary to implement the project.

At this point, it's also wise to try to zero in on the problem by stating it clearly in written form. Although this may seem to be an unnecessary step in the research process, it really isn't. If the problem can't be verbalized, it's unlikely that it can be studied effectively and systematically. Often, a problem that initially appears to be quite manageable is recognized as impossible and/or formidable when put on paper. This process is generally referred to as formulating a research question or stating a hypothesis. Both simply mean trying to come up with a possible solution to the problem. For example, will increased circulation occur if book talks are given? Will distributing bibliographies in the classroom increase the use of supplementary materials?

Formulate a research question or hypothesis.

Formulating a hypothesis is a major hurdle for anyone contemplating a research project. Ideas are not easy to come by and narrowing the focus to manageable proportions is no less difficult, but both are most definitely within the range of novice researchers.

Determine the methodology.

Determining the appropriate methodology for studying the problem is not as formidable as formulating a hypothesis, but it too requires careful thought and attention to detail. A number of questions must be addressed before beginning the project:

What type of information or data is needed?
Circulation figures? Responses to questions asked? Performance?

What type of instrument should be used to collect this information?
A questionnaire? An interview? A test?

Who will collect the data?
Teachers? Media staff?

From whom will information be gathered?
From teachers? Students? Administrators?

What research design will be used?
Pretest-posttest? Posttest only? Time-series design?

How and when will data be collected?

What statistical techniques will be necessary?

What kinds of records should be kept?

As stated earlier, all of these questions should be answered before the project is begun. Know precisely what is needed and how to go about getting it. If assistance is needed for any part of the study, get it now! Expert advice and assistance is usually available from nearby universities, from state departments of public instruction, and often from your state professional organizations. The American Association of School Librarians (AASL) sponsors a research forum at annual ALA/AASL conferences. AASL, in addition, has a very active research committee that has worked diligently to encourage and support research at the local level.

Get assistance [illegible] necessary before beginning the project.

Generally, it is also beneficial to go through a trial run to see if you're getting the information you anticipated and to see if the methodology is appropriate. Questions and procedures that are quite clear to you may be confusing to someone else; similarly, a questionnaire or test which seems reasonable in length and not difficult to you may seem long and complicated to someone else. A trial run or pilot study can expose problems that might not otherwise be apparent.

Do a pilot study.

No matter what procedures are used, it is absolutely imperative that accurate records be kept. If the anticipated results are not forthcoming, you should be able to examine the records to spot anything that should be changed another time. The records should also be explicit enough to allow someone else to replicate or repeat the study. All of the questions addressed with respect to methodology should be noted in the written record, along with any last minute changes in procedure that have to be implemented, an aspect that's often neglected even by experienced researchers.

Keep a detailed account of procedures followed.

Drawing Conclusions and Reporting Findings

Drawing Conclusions and Reporting Findings

The prospect of analyzing the data collected often appears frightening to the novice researcher and is perceived as a deterrent by those who feel that they have inadequate statistical expertise, but there should be little need for concern. For what most novice researchers want to do, simple analysis procedures are sufficient; if the study does demand more sophisticated statistical procedures, help is available from the sources earlier mentioned and is usually relatively accessible.

Analyze the data gathered.

Simple analysis procedures are usually sufficient.

In many cases, it may only be necessary to determine whether or not the "treatment" is practically significant. For example, if the average scores of two groups being studied are vastly different, it's probably not necessary to apply any more sophisticated statistical procedures. You can probably assume that the difference is due to the treatment given.

Determine whether or not findings are statistically and/or practically significant.

If, however, the average scores of two groups are relatively close together, it's impossible to tell whether the difference is actually due to chance or to the experimental treatment. In this case, some sort of statisical procedure would definitely have to be applied.

And even if the results are statistically significant, that's no guarantee that they are practically significant or worth the effort to implement. Let's assume for the moment that the treatment that's been applied is extremely time consuming. If this treatment yields a large increase in materials usage, for example, we can say

that the treatment is worthwhile even though it is time consuming. Assume, however, that the experimental group shows a statistically significant increase in materials usage, but that that increase amounts to only one more book being circulated per group per week. Is this increase enough return on the amount of time invested? Might other methods be less time consuming yet yield better results?

Be as objective as possible.

Try to interpret or analyze the data as objectively as possible. Objectivity is the key here as people often tend to see what they want to see. There is sometimes a tendency to interpret the data so that it supports the hypothesis advanced. if the information gathered is somewhat subjective, ask someone who has not been involved with the experiment to read and interpret the data; this is especially important if statistics are not applied.

The project should not be considered a failure if findings are not as anticipated.

There is also the tendency to feel a sense of failure if the results have not come out as expected. Even among experienced researchers there is hesitancy about reporting "negative" results. The project isn't a failure simply because the results aren't as anticipated; learning has still occurred. You have at least learned that the treatment or method experimented with is not effective. Better to know that a particular procedure is not effective and cease using it than to habitually employ a procedure that has no value and never know it.

Put research findings into practice.

A long-standing problem surrounding research efforts is the failure to put findings into practice. Several factors contribute to this situation:

1. Research findings don't always reach the people who could put them into practice.

2. Research studies that are highly theoretical are not perceived by practitioners as being directly applicable to their own situations.

3. Much research that does take place is not relevant to school situations.

There is strong feeling that the more involved people are in the research effort, the more likely they'll be to implement the findings. Thus, if library media specialists initiate a research project, they'll be more likely to implement the findings derived from that project. The other problems mentioned are also minimized when research takes place at the local level. Presumably, only problems that are relevant to the local situation would be studied and, therefore, the chances are greater that the results would be duly implemented.

The research process is not finished until you have shared your findings with others--through in-service workshops, by presenting at conferences, or by writing for professional journals. We need to know what others are doing in the field and that can only be accomplished if everyone will accept the responsibility for disseminating their research findings. This provides impetus for other projects, stimulates ideas, and adds to a body of knowledge which, examined in total, can indicate new trends and developments in the field.

Disseminate research findings to other professionals in the field.

CONCLUDING REMARKS FOR LIBRARIANS

1. Develop an awareness of problem areas in the library.

2. Some research needs will be beyond the capabilities of the local staff. Determine the local capability and work within it to avoid frustration and disappointment.

3. Initial research efforts should be restricted to problems which will not require complex statistical analysis.

CONCLUDING REMARKS FOR TEACHERS

1. Local research can provide an indication of which library activities are the most cost effective. Cooperate with these efforts to maximize the benefits of your efforts.

2. Student involvement in the local research effort can be a valuable learning experience.

CONCLUDING REMARKS FOR ADMINISTRATORS

1. Help instill an atmosphere conducive to experimentation, an environment in which teachers and media specialists are not afraid to fail.

2. Local research efforts can point out those activities which are most cost effective, enabling administrators to economize without damaging the quality of the educational effort.

A PATHFINDER TO LOCALLY-BASED RESEARCH

SCOPE NOTE:

Locally-based research employs the same procedures that are used in larger, more formal research efforts. The primary difference is that results generated from locally-based research cannot be generalized to other situations.

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Tuckman, Bruce W. Conducting Educational Research, 2nd ed. New York: Harcourt, Brace, Jovanovich, 1978.

IN-DEPTH STUDY:

Borg, Walter R. and Meredith D. Gall. Educational Research: An Introduction, 2nd ed. New York: David McKay, 1976.

Campbell, Donald T. and Julian C. Stanley. Experimental and Quasi-Experimental Designs for Research. Chicago: Rand McNally, 1963.

Van Dalen, Deobold B. Understanding Educational Research. 3rd ed. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1973.

JOURNALS TO WATCH:

Journals which publish research reports or articles on research include: School Media Quarterly, Top of the News, Educational Communication and Technology, Educational Technology, Library Trends, and Journal of Education for Librarianship.

HUMAN RESOURCES:

To locate people who have expertise in the area of locally-based research, find schools of library and information science or education and identify within those schools faculty or staff members who have expertise in research methodology, research design, and/or statistics. People with research expertise may also be found in state departments of education and state and national professional organizations.

EVALUATION IN LIBRARY MEDIA CENTERS

by

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and

Dr. Dorothy M. Shields, School of Library and Information Sciences, Brigham Young University

PREVIEW AND QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

With the current move toward accountability and the pressures of budgetary squeezes brought on by tax initiatives, recession, and inflation, are school library media centers justifying services offered and funds spent?

How do library media centers determine whether they are accomplishing their purposes or meeting their goals?

Are school library media centers making use of current objective management practices?

What factors contribute to the use of goals and objectives in regular evaluation programs?

Are the records and measurements being kept in school library/media centers being used to effectively measure performance and improve programs?

Introduction

The quality of any school library media program is affected by the adequacy of its evaluation. Through evaluation, information can be gathered to support claims of quality and the demands of accountability. In addition, effective evaluation identifies strengths and weaknesses in the program, thus enhancing future planning and facilitating additional success.

In many areas of the country, budgets are being cut. School library media specialists and their programs are being scrutinized. These people need supportive facts now to show how well they are meeting their stated goals. This may present a problem for many schools. According to the findings of this study, only one-half of the secondary school library media centers in the northwestern area of the United States have goals and a mere fifth reported using goals and objectives in a regular evaluation program. Without the facts provided by appropriate evaluation, school library media programs will be forced to depend on traditional quantitative records--those that show only what has been put into the system--when what is needed is evidence of outcomes or successful application of those inputs. Effective measurement of products or outcome is the key to demonstrating progress toward meaningful goals and objectives.

This study[1] identified a variety of factors that are related to the use of written goals and objectives in school library media programs. In addition, procedures for evaluation were recommended by experts, but the evidence indicated that these procedures are seldom used.

Methodology

Two separate surveys were conducted. The first asked a panel of experts to provide information that could be used to establish a standard against which the practices actually being used in the schools could be compared. These practices were determined through responses to a second questionnaire.

The panel of experts consisted of six people who had published books or recent journal articles on school library management or evaluation. Each expert was asked to rate 28 evaluation procedures on a scale of zero to five. These six ratings of how

[1]Stokes, Ned Arthur. "Goals and Performance Measures Used in Secondary School Media Centers." MLS research paper, Brigham Young University, 1980.

NOTES

Introduction

Evaluation affects the quality of an LMC.

School library media programs are being scrutinized.

Regular evaluation programs based on written goals and objectives are scarce.

Evidence of progress toward meaningful goals is needed.

This study identified factors related to the use of goals and objectives as well as procedures recommended for evaluation.

Methodology

Two surveys were conducted and compared: (1) Expert opinion provided a standard. (2) Library media specialists reported actual practice.

Six experts rated the effectiveness of 28 evaluation systems.

useful each procedure would be in providing effective data for evaluation were totaled and the procedures ranked according to the points they received. The experts were also asked to rate nine evaluation systems on a scale of zero to five and to suggest any other measures or systems that would be useful. These ratings were also totaled and the systems ranked.

The second survey was sent to 302 secondary school library media directors to determine what evaluation procedures and performance measures they are now using, and to what extent they make use of goals and objectives in evaluating their library program. Data about the school and the community as well as the library media program and its director were also collected. In an effort to get a broad sampling of library practices, the seven-state area encompassed by the Northwest Association of Schools and Colleges was chosen for the survey. This area includes the states of Alaska, Idaho, Montana, Nevada, Oregon, Utah, and Washington. A random sample of schools were selected from the list of accredited secondary schools in the Northwest Association directory, and questionnaires were mailed out to them in April 1980. Sample schools, which ranged in size from a student body of 58 in four grades to 2,669 students in three grades, included isolated rural as well as large metropolitan schools, and both public and private schools. Responses were received from 212 schools, which represented a return rate of 70 percent.

Evaluation procedures and systems used in 302 LMCs in seven northwestern states were determined.

Findings

Findings

Small secondary schools are still the most common in the Northwest, with 44.1 percent of the schools reporting a student population of less then 500, 42.2 percent of between 500 and 1,500, and only 13.7 percent of more than 1,500 students.

Small schools are the most common in the Northwest.

Over 75 percent of the library media specialists had teaching experience before going to work in the library. The average was a little over five years of teaching experience in addition to ten years in the library.

Over 75 percent of the library media specialists have had classroom teaching experience.

Over half of the library media specialists are attempting to keep up to date and have attended a class or workshop within the last two years.

Most schools (90.1 percent) had a combination of print and non-print materials in their centers.

State departments of education provide little help in evaluation other than publishing state guidelines.

State departments of education are not providing effective leadership in this area.

TABLE 1: HELP FROM STATE DEPARTMENTS OF EDUCATION IN EVALUATING SCHOOL LIBRARY MEDIA PROGRAMS

State Activity	Number of Respondents	Percentage of Total Schools
Publishes state media guidelines	137	67.2%
Requires annual reports	46	22.5
Representative visits every year	17	8.3
Visited within five years	74	36.3
Conducts media management workshops	27	13.2
Other help	15	7.4
No help	17	8.3

Fifty percent of the respondents claimed to have written goals and objectives that have been reviewed and approved by their school administration. However, only 20.7 percent of the respondents actually use their goals and objectives in a regular evaluation program. The majority of schools reported informal evaluations only.

Fifty percent had written goals and objectives. Only 20.7 percent used them for evaluation.

The strongest motivator to providing written goals and objectives was an administrative directive requiring them in an annual report. The relationship between these two factors was significant at the 0.0001 level. Actual use of those goals in evaluation took place when that administrative directive required not only the written goals but measures of user satisfaction also. Unfortunately, administrators are more likely to require an annual inventory than written goals and objectives and least likely of all to ask for measures of user satisfaction.

Having goals and objectives and using them for evaluation are usually a result of an administrative directive.

TABLE 2: ANNUAL REPORTS REQUIRED BY SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION FROM LIBRARY MEDIA DIRECTORS

Table 2 shows types of annual reports generated.

Type of Report	Number of Respondents	Percentage of Total Schools
Inventory of materials and equipment	177	86.8%
Written goals and objectives	86	42.2
Circulation records	63	30.9
Measures of user satisfaction	11	5.4
No report required	27	13.2
No response	8	3.8

Other factors that were significantly related to having written goals and objectives were: the LMS is certified, significant at the 0.002 level; community population is 5,000 or more, 0.01 level; the LMS has more than three years experience in LMCs, 0.02 level; and the LMS has had classroom teaching experience, 0.03 level.

Several factors were found to be related to having goals and objectives: The LMS is certified and experienced; and a large population.

All of the evaluation procedures highly recommended by the six experts were output measures, most of them based on perceptions of service gathered from people outside of the library media center. The nine most useful procedures as rated by the experts were:

The experts recommended evaluation procedures that examined outputs.

1. Survey of students who use the media center.
2. Survey of students who don't use the media center.
3. Survey of teacher satisfaction.
4. Occasional evaluation by an outside team.
5. Survey of administrative opinion.
6. Annual evaluation by an outside team.

7. Survey of parent or community opinion.
8. Record of total staff time spent on reference.
9. Annual media program self-evaluation.

These were found to be significantly different (at the 0.001 level) from the procedures actually being used in the schools.

Output measures are not being used in the schools.

The records reportedly being kept in school library media centers are either operational in nature, such as inventories and accounts, or they are the traditional library records of circulation and checks against standard guides such as the Wilson school library catalogs.

As a group, the experts did not give high marks to any of the existing systems for evaluating school library media centers. On a scale of from zero to five, only Liesener's PPBS (planning-programming-budgeting system) and the Purdue Self-Evaluation System received an average rating as high as three. The AECT guide, Evaluating Media Programs, and the Gaver Checklist had an average rating of between two and three. Again, the systems recommended by the experts were found to be significantly different systems (at the 0.001 level) than those being used in the schools.

Existing evaluation systems considered most useful by the experts are not being used in the schools.

Records that are necessary for effective evaluation are generally not being kept and management by objectives is not being practiced in 80 percent of the Northwest school library media centers. However, school library media specialists who set goals and use them to measure their yearly progress have a significantly better feeling at the 0.001 level about what they are doing and what they are accomplishing than do other media specialists.

Library media specialists who set goals and use them for evaluation are more satisfied with their accomplishments.

Comments by the respondents indicated a high degree of frustration and identified several factors that inhibit evaluation: (1) Lack of time and help simply to get everything done. (2) Lack of knowledge of evaluation systems and techniques. (3) Administrators who do not understand and support the library media program. (4) Lack of leadership from the district and state levels. (5) Complicated, time consuming evaluation systems. (6) Attitudes which find evaluation non-productive. In order for any evaluation system to work, it must be simple enough to require practically no time, and useful enough to make it worth the effort.

Comments suggest factors that inhibit evaluation.

CONCLUSIONS FOR LIBRARY MEDIA SPECIALISTS

Implications of this study for changes needed in library media center management are:

1. Library media directors need training and instruction in management by objectives and in systems of program evaluation. Workshops and conferences on these topics should be requested.

2. A system of records management needs to be developed and followed that will measure many aspects of library media service both quantitatively and qualitatively.

3. A regular survey of user satisfaction needs to be taken with concrete figures that can be compared from year to year. These surveys need to include both students who use the library and those who don't, and faculty, administration, and parent opinions.

4. Goals and objectives that can be accomplished within the school year need to be established cooperatively by the librarian, school administration, and the faculty on an annual basis. Plans that include a process of evaluation during the year should be developed for accomplishing these goals, and an opportunity provided to set up new objectives for the coming year.

5. Regular evaluation needs to be established and followed to provide greater personal satisfaction and professional growth to practicing library media specialists.

6. Positive attitudes toward evaluation need to be developed.

CONCLUSIONS FOR SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS

Implications of this study for the contribution that administrators can make to quality media programs are:

1. A reporting system needs to be set up that will be simple to use, but will effectively provide information on what is being accomplished in the library throughout the school year.

2. An annual review and evaluation of the media program should be required. Suggestions for possible new objectives would be a major consideration.

3. Annual reports of library media accomplishments should be sent to the school board, parent organizations, and appropriate news media to encourage program support.

4. Opportunities and encouragement need to be provided for library media personnel to attend workshops, training sessions, and classes in management by objectives and in evaluation.

CONCLUSIONS FOR STATE DEPARTMENTS OF EDUCATION

Implications of this study for leadership needed on the state level for program improvement are:

1. States should establish state library media standards and develop an evaluation tool that can be used to recognize quality programs and aid in the improvement of others. The merit program set up in 1979 by the state of Kentucky is an example.

2. Regional or district workshops need to be conducted by the state to train library media people in evaluation techniques and objective management.

3. State personnel should assist in annual evaluations through visits to schools and participation on evaluating teams.

4. Record systems and sampling techniques that can be used on a statewide basis for measuring program quality need to be developed and provided for individual districts and media centers, along with instructions for their use.

A PATHFINDER FOR SCHOOL LIBRARY MEDIA CENTERS

SCOPE NOTE:

Library media center evaluation includes performance measures, objective management, and accountability, along with program evaluation.

INTRODUCTORY SOURCES:

Short introductory articles include:

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IN-DEPTH STUDY:

For those who wish to study further, refer to:

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JOURNALS TO WATCH:

Drexel Library Quarterly, Evaluation Review (formerly Evaluation Quarterly), How to Evaluate Education Programs, Instructional Innovator (formerly Audiovisual Instruction), School Library Journal, School Media Quarterly.

PERSONS WHO WRITE ABOUT SCHOOL LIBRARY EVALUATION:

Evelyn Daniel, James W. Liesener, David V. Loertscher, Anna Mary Lowrey, Nancy Polette, Janet G. Stroud, Blanche Woolls.

MATERIALS STUDENTS USE:

A DIRECT MEASUREMENT APPROACH

by

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and

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PREVIEW AND QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

A study of the bibliographies or other written records from high school student research papers is very revealing concerning the types of collections students use and need.

What should teachers know when assigning research papers that require library media center usage?

Can library media specialists build collections that have a high potential for success in meeting student research needs?

How can administrators help in insuring better student research products?

NOTES

Introduction

Introduction

Metropolitan high school students are information consumers whose needs are dictated to a considerable extent by the demands of their school situations--more specifically, by the requirements of their classroom assignments. Schools, in turn, are called upon to meet widely divergent needs of students. Such needs stem both from current educational philosophy, with its strong emphasis on individualized instruction, and from the intellectual and cultural diversity of the students themselves. The task of assessing these needs and translating them into available materials and services fall to the school library media specialist. The library media specialist, then, faces a problem fundamental to all information agencies, that of defining and describing the nature of resources which actually will be used.

Students' information needs are dictated by teacher assignments.

The LMS is responsible for supplying the information resources.

The present study[1] addresses this problem by presenting an inventory of the variety and nature of materials which students use, including materials from libraries of all types--school and public libraries, as well as academic, private, and special collections. Such a quantitative inventory is a useful management tool, since realistic collection development and management must be based on the actual patterns of the library users. Knowing what students in fact use allows school and public librarians to plan services more effectively and to identify jointly those areas calling for increased information exchange and cooperation.

This research identifies the materials students use in their assignments.

Such a study will help the LMS in collection building and management.

Methodology

Methodology

A purposeful sample of 15 high schools within 100 miles of a major metropolitan area was selected for this study. Within those schools student assignments were collected from 73 classes, supervised by 55 teachers (some of the classes included were responsible to the same teacher). Five public school districts and two independent schools cooperated in the study. Sample schools were selected to vary in size of student body (small to large); in location (urban and near major area resources, to suburban with varying levels of locally available resources); and in basis of support (private or public), including public schools with considerably

Student assignments from 73 classes in 15 high schools were studied.

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[1]Drott, M. Carl, Jacqueline C. Mancall, Raymond W. Barker, and Tracey D. Robinson. A Quantitative Inventory of Resource Development and Utilization for Metropolitan High School Students. Washington, DC: DHEW, Office of Education. Office of Libraries and Learning Resources Project #475AH80086, Grant #G007801806, January 1980. ERIC Document ED 188 638.

different levels of library funding. Thirteen of the schools were publicly supported and ranged in size from approximately 1,500 students to well over 4,800. Two schools were private or independent schools. The two private schools were also the "small" schools, with student bodies just under 200.

The student uses studied were those in which students used outside, or non-textbook, sources in preparing reports or papers, and in which there was a written record by the student of sources used--a bibliography, footnotes, or, as in the case of a debate class, written note cards of the sources of information cited. It is important to remember that this study examined all materials used by students regardless of source. This is quite different than simply studying the school library media center. The typical student in the sample used two or three different libraries. Only 14 percent of the students restricted their searching to a single library. This study is thus an examination of the use of community resources, not of individual library usage.

Only papers or projects with written records of resources used were studied.

The typical student used two or three libraries to gather the materials cited.

Findings

Findings

Patterns of resource use were determined from 1,178 papers prepared by students in classes in English, history, social studies, debate, political science, economics, science, and health education. For planning purposes we can speak of an average paper. This is done in the sense that multiplying the average by the number of students doing papers will indicate the total demand for resources. On the average, each paper gives rise to seven references. Of these 4.3 are to monographs (books), 1.4 references are to journals (magazines), 0.5 to encyclopedias, 0.3 to newspapers, 0.2 to pamphlets or government documents, and 0.3 to a wide variety of miscellaneous items.

An average paper had seven references. A mean of 4.3 books were cited. 1.4 journals were referenced.

The picture presented by the average is a somewhat distorted one. There are two reasons for this: First, a small number of students who used a relatively large number of references tend to distort the average as a picture of most likely student behavior. Second, there is a great deal of student to student variation which makes any summary measure unreliable.

The mean number of sources is distorted because of vast differences in the number of citations individual students included.

While the averages presented above cannot be used as a guide in dealing with individual students, the LMS can use them as indicators of the "load" which paper assignments will place on community information resources. These estimates can be made by simply multiplying the number of students involved by the average figures given above. For example, with 200 students one would expect the usage of about 860 monographs, 280 journal articles, etc.

One could expect 200 students to use 86 books and 280 journal articles.

Individual papers had a wide range of total references--from a low of one reference in 53 papers to a high of 47 references in one paper. The total number of references varied according to the requirements of the assignment and the subject area. Most papers (73 percent) in humanities subjects (English and history) referenced from five to 15 items, while one-half or more of the papers produced by social science classes (economics, political science, and health education) referenced four or fewer items. Science papers also referenced fewer items. In part, these differences are a reflection of the nature of the assignment--especially the emphasis which different teachers gave to finding materials as opposed to writing about them.

The number of references ranged from one to 47.

The number of references was a reflection of the nature of the assignment.

The combined bibliographies of the papers contained 8,279 references. Of these references, 62 percent were to monographs, 19 percent were to journals, and the remainder were to a wide variety of sources, including encyclopedias, newspapers, government documents, pamphlets, and non-print items. Table 1 shows the distribution of reference by type and by percentage of students referencing a particular type.

Table 1 shows the distribution of references by type.

TABLE 1: DISTRIBUTION OF REFERENCES BY TYPE OF MATERIALS REFERENCED IN 1,178 STUDENT PAPERS (N=8,279)

Types of References	% of References	Used by % of Students
References to monographs	62%	88%
References to journals	19	39
References to encyclopedias	7	36
References to newspapers	4	10
References to government documents and pamphlets	3	14
References to nonprint materials	1	4
References to other miscellaneous materials	4	17

There is a strong preference by students for monographs (books), regardless of subject area, level of student, school, or school district. Virtually two-thirds of all references are to monographs and almost all students (88 percent) reference this type of material. Journal references account for almost one-fifth (19 percent) of the references and are used by just over one-third (39 percent) of the students. All other materials combined account for another one-fifth (19 percent) of the references.

88 percent of the students referenced books.

19 percent of the students referenced journal articles.

The percentage of students using various types of materials may be a good indicator of the general level of bibliographic skill. The use of monographs is both heavy and widespread. Students are relying heavily on this most familiar form of material. Not only are many fewer journal articles used, but many fewer students use any journal items. Encyclopedia references were low, as would be expected since no single student should reference more than one or two such items. On the other hand, the number of students referencing any encyclopedia was also low. We cannot tell if this low usage is due to a failure of students to recognize the value of encyclopedias as a starting point in a literature search, or if it is due to a feeling by students or teachers that encyclopedias are, in a sense, a "disreputable shortcut."

Encyclopedia references were low.

The use of all other forms of materials was very low, both in terms of number of items used and number of students using. We know from our experience in individual schools that this low use is not simply a reflection of lack of holdings. In a school with excellent vertical files we saw no higher use of pamphlets and clippings. Another school held The New York Times Index and back issues on microfilm, but had lower newspaper usage than some schools without such holdings. It seems clear that, if the educational objective is to have more students use these materials, then instruction and guidance from the teacher and librarian are more important than holdings.

Excellent vertical file collections containing pamphlets and clippings were little used.

Newspaper collections on microfilm were little used.

Students must have specific instructions if they are to use other books and journals.

Materials referenced are not particularly current. Currency was measured by a number of variables, including the most current date of any item referenced in each paper, the oldest date, the percentage of references within the last five years, and the percentage within 10 years of the date of the assignment. There is an average span of 15 years between the most current date and the oldest date within a paper (median 1975 to median 1960). When one looks at the percentage of materials within five to 10 years of the date of the papers, only 20 percent of all papers have one-half or more of their materials within the past five years. Only 42 percent of the papers have at least one-half of their materials within the past 10 years. Oddly, humanities and science papers are remarkably alike in this respect. Social science papers reference materials which are slightly more current.

Materials referenced are not particularly current.

Only 20 percent of all papers have one-half or more of their references more recent than five years.

Journals especially have been considered as a resource for current information, yet the journal references were not particularly current. Of the students who referenced journals, 30 percent referenced no items from the last five years and 21 referenced no articles from the last 10 years. This is explainable in part by the student's use of materials which were contemporaneous to the subject matter of their papers. Thus, for example, a paper on the Holocaust was likely to reference articles from the 1930's and 1940's. Table 2 shows the five most popular journal titles and their oldest dates of use.

Even journal references are not particularly current.

Table 2 shows most popular journals used and date spans of use.

TABLE 2: MOST POPULAR JOURNALS AND THEIR EARLIEST DATES OF USE

Title	% of all journal use	Oldest	Median	Most recent
Newsweek	9%	1936	1976	1978
Time	7	1923	1976	1979
U.S. News and World Report	5	1951	1976	1979
Sports Illustrated	4	1973	1977	1978
New Republic	3	1915	1964	1978

There are two important considerations which arise from the information in Table 2. In the first place, the five top titles are accounting for 28 percent of all journal articles used. (Overall, the students in the sample referenced 1,490 articles from 296 titles.) This pattern of use concentrated in a few titles is typical of most studies of journal use by adult scientists and scholars. It should serve to emphasize the high levels of service which can be attained with only a modest number of well chosen titles. The long time range of the journal articles used suggests that in many situations a library can offer more service by binding and making available long runs of back issues than by purchasing current subscriptions to less used journals.

Journal citations are concentrated in a few journal titles.

Many libraries may do quite well with a modest number of well-chosen journal titles.

The list of the top 20 titles presented in Figure 1 can serve as a general guide for serial collection development, although it is important to remember that these

titles represent materials used for particular kinds of assignments. Other titles may be used for other reasons. Furthermore, exact importance will vary from assignment to assignment. We are confident, however, that in any list with assignments of this type, these 20 titles would appear in the top 40. If your library has 60 to 80 subscriptions, certainly these should be on your list, or you should have good reason for omitting them (e.g., good ties with a public library that can provide these titles to students).

FIGURE 1: Top 20 Magazine Titles Referenced by Students

1. Newsweek
2. Time
3. U.S. News & World Report
4. Sports Illustrated
5. New Republic
6. Saturday Review
7. Scientific American
8. Science Digest
9. Science News
10. Nation
11. Reader's Digest
12. Business Week
13. National Geographic
14. America
15. American Heritage
16. Science
17. Current History
18. Congressional Digest
19. Psychology Today
20. National Review

Figure 1 is a buying guide for school library media centers.

There is a somewhat troublesome aspect to the age of materials which students are referencing. The use of materials contemporary to a topic seems appropriate, but many older references do not fall into this category. For example, over half of the students who referenced Scientific American cited articles which were more than 10 years old. Many topics in scientific fields can change radically in 10 years. Monograph usage shows similar age patterns with over half of the students having the majority of their references more than 10 years old. This is certainly very old for technical or scientific materials. Even for historical research one would expect that students should be seeking modern monographic commentaries. In our judgement, the students in this sample were simply insensitive to whether the age of their materials was appropriate. This may stem from a failure of teachers and librarians to emphasize the use of age in judging the appropriateness of materials. The use of older materials may also reflect poor weeding policies on the part of libraries. In this respect library standards may inadvertently encourage poor practice. Standards often discuss collection size in precise quantitative terms while ignoring or only vaguely mentioning considerations of the age of materials.

Students were insensitive about the age of the materials they used.

Use of older materials may reflect poor weeding practices.

Book titles referenced by students are very diverse.

In an analysis of 1,862 books used by students in nine classes, only 25 titles were referenced by three or more students.

The monograph titles used by students showed great diversity. We examined title by title the references from nine classes. These classes were advanced placement students in college preparatory tracks. They could thus be expected to be more similar in intellectual and reading ability than the sample as a whole. Of the 1,862 monographic titles referenced by this group, only 25 were referenced by three or more students. Most of these titles represent history books of a general or survey nature. For example, The Oxford History of the American People and The Harvard Guide to American History were among the frequently used titles.

This frequency of use seems to stem in a large part from specific recommendations of teachers and librarians (sometimes as a part of a handout describing the assignment). Overall, we believe that the overlap of titles resulting from the students' own initiative is minimal.

CONCLUDING REMARKS FOR LIBRARIANS

Implications of this study for building collections and planning services include:

1. Students show a strong preference for books--access to a diversity of titles is needed from more libraries than just the school.

2. Students ignore the age of materials--aggressive weeding is a must!

3. Special collections of microfilm, vertical files, and nonprint media are little used--constant and extensive instruction in their use is required.

4. Concentrate on fewer journal titles with longer backruns (longer than five years!).

CONCLUDING REMARKS FOR TEACHERS

Implications of this study for your teaching include:

1. Students ignore the age of materials they cite in research papers. Guidelines to appropriate currency are essential.

2. If students are to use materials other than books and journals, work with the librarian to introduce these materials to the students, and stress their location and use.

3. Assignments which explicitly require number and type of resources to be used have a strong effect in determining student levels of performance.

4. In making assignments the teacher should recognize that students will use a number of different collections and should encourage this through student instruction and contact with community librarians.

CONCLUDING REMARKS FOR ADMINISTRATORS

Implications of this study for guiding the direction of the research and materials available in your school include:

1. Encourage teachers and librarians to plan jointly for student instruction in resource use.

2. Recognize that students are willing and able to use many community information sources and libraries. Encourage teachers and librarians to extend the student's access to many community resources.

3. Because resource use is so diverse, the librarian's efforts should emphasize instruction in finding any relevant materials rather than attempting to create a collection which contains exactly the "right materials."

4. Administrators should be less concerned with the physical number of items in a library collection and concentrate more on encouraging currency and subject breadth.

A PATHFINDER TO BIBLIOMETRICS

SCOPE NOTE:

The methodology of this study was derived from bibliometrics, which is a tool drawn from the field of information science.

INTRODUCTORY SOURCES:

Short articles for the layman include:

Barber, Raymond W. and Jacqueline C. Mancall. "The Application of Bibliometric Techniques to the Analysis of Materials for Young Adults." Collection Management 2(Fall 1978): 229-245.

Ferrante, Barbara Kopelock. "Bibliometrics: Access in the Library Literature." Collection Management 2(Fall 1978): 199-204.

Pritchard, Alan. "Statistical Bibliography or Bibliometrics." Journal of Documentation 25(Dec. 1969): 348-349.

IN-DEPTH STUDY:

For those who wish to study further, try:

Line, Maurice. Library Surveys. Great Britain: Archon Books, 1967.

Mancall, Jacqueline C. and M. Carl Drott. "Materials Used by High School Students in Preparing Independent Study Projects: A Bibliometric Approach." Library Research 1(Fall 1979): 223-236.

Mancall, Jacqueline C. and M. Carl Drott. "Tomorrow's Scholars: Patterns of Facilities Use." School Library Journal 26(March 1980): 99-103.

BIBLIOGRAPHIES:

Useful bibliographies on the topic of bibliometrics include:

Narin, Frances and Joy K. Moll. "Bibliometrics." In Martha E. Williams, ed. Annual Review of Information Science and Technology, vol. 12, pp. 35-58. White Plains, NY: Knowledge Industry Publications, 1977.

Broadus, Robert N. "The Applications of Citation Analysis to Library Collection Building." In Melvin J. Voigt and Michael J. Harris, eds., Advances in Librarianship, v. 7, pp. 300-335. New York: Academic Press, 1977.

JOURNALS TO WATCH:

Journals which usually publish articles pertaining to bibliometrics include: Journal of Documentation; Collection Management; Journal of the American Society for Information Science; and Aslib Proceedings.

HUMAN RESOURCES:

The way to locate bibliometricians is to find schools of library and information science, and identify within these schools faculty members or research staff associated with information science or scientific and technical information. The survey techniques draw on methodologies from sociometrics. Persons with these skills may be found in sociology departments or departments dealing with public policy studies. Experienced survey researchers may also be associated with governmental planning agencies.

PERSONS WHO WRITE ABOUT THIS APPROACH INCLUDE:

Belver C. Griffith, Frances Narin, Derek J. de Solla Price, and Maurice Line.

LIBRARY MEDIA SPECIALISTS:

WHAT ROLE SHOULD THEY PLAY?

by

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PREVIEW AND QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

The library media specialist (LMS) is expected to assume the role of teacher, librarian, manager, instructional designer, and more at various times according to national standards and other professional statements.

How well are LMSs performing? How close are they coming to an ideal level of performance?

Which of their many roles and functions are considered to be more important and which are considered to be less important?

Does the size of the school system make any difference in the role expectations for the LMS?

How can LMSs and principals use information from role studies to set priorities and plan for the future?

Introduction

National standards for school library media centers have received a great deal of attention over the past two decades, with new statements appearing in 1960, 1969, and 1975. During the same period state certification requirements for school media specialists have been examined, reviewed, and revised across the country. These standards and requirements embody what leaders in the profession see as an appropriate set of role expectations for the LMS. These roles are premised on ideal situations, with optimum funding, staff, quarters, administrative support, and instructional programs. This creates a problem because nearly everywhere there is a gap between the ideal situation assumed by the standards and the "real world" of school media centers today. Each LMS is therefore faced with the problem of deciding what is essential in his/her local situation.

The present study[1] addresses this problem by providing information on what LMSs and school administrators see as the actual and ideal roles and functions of the LMS in large and small school districts.[2] Information of this kind is useful because it provides library media center personnel with reality based norms to use in planning. Local school personnel can compare their current activities and future plans with norms for similar school systems and make decisions based on information rather than conjecture.

Methodology

A questionnaire based on the current national standards Media Programs: District and School and other current sources was used to gather data from LMSs, principals, and superintendents in 72 school districts in 18 Texas counties.

These school districts range in size from Dallas and Fort Worth down to single campus rural schools, and were located in a geographic area of 14,166 square

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[1]Pfister, Fred C., and Alexander, Karen. Discrepancies Between Actual and Ideal Roles and Functions of Texas School Librarians as Perceived by School Superintendents, Principals, and Librarians: Report and Study. Denton: North Texas State University, 1976. ERIC Document ED 134 188.

[2]For purposes of this study, a small district is one with nine or fewer schools; a large district has 10 or more schools.

NOTES

Introduction

National standards and certification have revised expectations of library media specialists (LMSs).

There is often a gap between the new role for the LMS and what happens in the real world.

This study gives information about which roles were considered most important by LMSs and administrators.

Such a study gives information for planning and priority setting.

Methodology

Administrators and LMSs from 72 Texas school districts (small and large) rated how they valued 57 role statements for LMSs.

miles--a litle larger than Maryland and Delaware combined--with a population of 2,659,300.

The questionnaire contained 57 statements such as "The librarian participates on curriculum planning committees" and "The librarian has responsibility for developing the listening, viewing, and responding skills of students." Response was obtained regarding perceptions of both the actual and the ideal condition for each statement, thus generating 114 items for the study. Response scales consisted of either a five point low to high progression plus an additional "don't know" opinion or a "yes" or "no" and the "don't know" option.

Both groups rated the actual and the ideal condition for each role.

A total of 814 (62 percent) of the surveys distributed were returned in usable condition. Principals and LMSs completed all the items; superintendents completed only those items concerned with LMS responsibilities, since superintendents were presumed not to have direct knowledge of the LMS' performance functions.

Principals and superintendents were included in the administrator group.

The t-test for correlated samples was used to compare the perceived actual condition with the perceived ideal condition for each statement. Analysis of variance was used to test the agreement or disagreement between respondent groups and subgroups.

The data were analyzed.

Follow-up interviews were conducted with a stratified random sample of 15 superintendents drawn from the 72 superintendents who responded to the survey. Interviews were conducted with superintendents to obtain reaction to major findings and to seek advisement on possible actions which might be desirable. Interview areas included planning, applying for funds, participating on curriculum planning committees, selecting materials and equipment, and developing listening, viewing, and responding skills of students.

Follow-up interviews with school superintendents were held.

Findings

Findings

The t-test for correlated samples shows the ideal ranking to be significantly higher than the actual ranking for every statement responded to by superintendents, principals, and LMSs. There is not one role or function included in this study which is now being carried out as well as respondents think it should be.

LMSs are not performing ideally in any role.

The groups most consistently dissatisfied with LMS performance were rural principals (as opposed to urban principals) and elementary principals (as opposed to secondary principals). Each of these subgroups in the study typically shares the services of one LMS with other schools in the district, and it may be that this part-

time service accounts for the wider gaps between their perceived actual conditions and their perceived ideal conditions. This finding supports previous research which found that when you cut one LMS in half to service two schools you get less than half of a program in each of those schools.

Part-time LMSs have the greatest ideal/actual role gap.

The three major respondent groups assigned higher actual and ideal rankings to the LMS's responsibility for selection and acquisition of print materials than to his/her responsibility for selection and acquisition of audiovisual materials and equipment. Apparently, responsibility for audiovisual material and equipment is less recognized as properly belonging to the LMS than is the responsibility for print materials. Information obtained from interviews with superintendents indicates that library tradition, media history, and possibly, sex role sterotyping have combined to deprive AV equipment and materials of an equal place in many centers. In a related area, the low importance assigned by LMSs to local production of materials and to instructional design functions may reflect lack of training and, perhaps, a hesitancy to become involved in activities when their role has not been clearly established.

Roles involving print materials rank higher than roles involving audiovisual materials and equipment.

Local AV production and instructional design ranked low.

LMSs are not participating as fully in management decisions as they could if they were more assertive. Superintendents and principals see more opportunities for LMSs to assume responsibility for management activities such as planning than the LMSs in this study have heretofore undertaken.

Administrators think LMSs should assume a larger management role.

Administrators gave significantly higher actual rankings (and thus attributed more responsibility or higher performance) than LMSs themselves did to management functions such as preparing educational specifications for new or remodeled facilities, planning for and managing campus level production of materials, and preparing proposals for outside funding. Many LMSs would, of necessity, have answered such management related statements as "The LMS participates in planning new facilities..." from a hypothetical, rather than an experiential, perspective. These responses may give a picture, then, of how LMSs think their administrators would involve them in management decisions if an opportunity should present itself. Since LMSs believe they would be allowed to give only limited input, it appears that they do not generally see themselves as having much actual control over their working environment.

LMSs seem to be missing an opportunity to assume a larger role.

The rankings LMSs gave themselves on traditional functions such as selecting, acquiring, and organizing materials tended to be higher than those given to them by principals and suggest that LMSs feel secure and comfortable in these traditional areas. Conversely, the lower rankings which LMSs gave themselves on management and production functions indicate that confidence is lacking there.

LMSs prefer traditional library roles to management and production functions.

Superintendent interviews indicate that the low level of LMS involvement in planning is due, at least in part, to administrators' hesitance to ask busy people to attend additional after-school meetings; but if LMSs will ask to be included, their participation in planning sessions will be welcomed.

LMSs can get involved in planning roles if they will ask.

Differences between large and small districts -- Rankings of LMSs from large districts were significantly higher than rankings of LMSs from small districts on 12 statements. Most of these are service-oriented functions such as disseminating information to students and teachers on the availability of materials, equipment, and resources; promoting the media center's collections and services by such means as book talks and classroom presentations; providing information to teachers on new teaching developments; helping students choose appropriate materials to meet learning needs; and providing for multi-cultural and multi-ethnic materials.

Service roles are more important to LMSs and administrators in large districts.

Similarly, principals from large districts gave higher rankings than principals in small districts to service or instruction-related functions such as developing listening, viewing, and responding skills, conducting in-service programs for teachers, helping students choose appropriate materials, and participating on curriculum committees.

LMSs from small districts gave significantly higher rankings to only four statements, all management-related: providing in-service education for staff, formulating policies for selecting materials, developing acquisition procedures for print materials, and evaluating policies and procedures.

Management roles are more important in small districts.

Principals in small districts gave LMSs significantly higher rankings than did principals from large districts on management-related areas such as planning facilities and preparing proposals for obtaining outside funds.

There is an apparent relationship between the size of the school district and the situation of the LMS with respect to service versus management functions. While campus level LMSs in large districts may have input into policy formulation and procedure development, they apparently do not have primary responsibility in these areas and therefore devote more time to day-to-day service. On the other hand, one person may be the only LMS in a small district and may have responsibility for several campuses. This apparently causes LMSs in small districts to emphasize management functions over service functions in order to provide training and guidance for the campus level aides and volunteers who are so essential in these circumstances.

The service/management role differences are the result of hiring full-time vs. part-time LMSs.

Differences between major groups not significant -- The 18 statements for which no significant difference was found between major groups on either the actual or the ideal condition presumably represent areas of agreement on the roles and functions of LMSs. Functions uniformly perceived at high levels of performance or responsibility by the three major groups included organizing materials, providing access to materials through a card catalog, maintaining financial records, and supervising media staff. Functions uniformly perceived at low levels of performance or responsibility include conducting in-service training for teachers, developing reading and responding skills, and providing information to teachers on new teaching developments.

Administrators and LMSs agree that organizing materials, keeping accounts, and supervising staff are important roles.

Conducting teacher in-service and developing reading and responding skills are not important roles.

The LMS is not viewed as a true colleague of the classroom teacher. The uniformly high actual rankings given by both LMSs and principals to LMS performance in formulating specific objectives, circulating materials, organizing materials, providing access through a card catalog or other records, maintaining financial records, and supervising staff indicate that the standard current expectation for LMSs is that they provide and manage an organized collection. On the other hand, the low rankings given to designing and conducting in-service training for teachers; developing listening, viewing, and responding skills; providing information to teachers on new teaching developments; and participating on curriculum planning committees support the conclusion that LMSs are not generally accepted in--and don't, as a group, perceive themselves in--the teaching or instructional role.

LMSs are not seen, nor do they see themselves, as true peers of teachers.

Lack of information -- The frequency with which principals and LMSs indicated lack of knowledge of the actual condition was examined. The rate of "don't know" responses for elementary and/or secondary principals exceeded 10 percent on 13 of the 57 statements. For LMSs the "don't know" exceeded 10 percent on seven of the 57 statements.

The "don't know" responses were also analyzed.

Both principals and LMSs exceeded the 10 percent level of "don't know" responses on statements on planning for the floor design, furnishings, etc., for new facilities; preparing proposals for obtaining outside funds; using the systems approach to planning; and applying instructional design concepts to locally produced materials.

Terminology used to identify the newer roles of the LMS is not always clear to either administrators or LMSs.

Superintendent interviews indicated that top school administrators lack information about what their LMS could be doing generally, and that they are particularly apt to be ill-informed about the value of LMS participation in curriculum and management planning.

Superintendents were not aware of the contribution that LMSs could make in the newer roles, particularly curricular planning.

The number of "don't know" responses by both LMSs and principals is cause for concern, since subordinate and superordinate relationships fare better in an atmosphere where the roles and functions of each are known to themselves and to one another. An administrator's support for media center activities is, at least in part, a function of his/her knowledge of those activities. The lack of communication from the LMS by such means as face-to-face contact, annual reports, and budget requests is often a contributing factor to the administrator's lack of information.

Administrators can't support what they don't know about or don't understand.

New role information given to administrators is vital if changes are to be made.

CONCLUDING REMARKS FOR LIBRARY MEDIA SPECIALISTS

Implications of this study for planning LMS roles include:

1. School administrators need a better understanding of what school library media specialists can and should do. One-to-one communication with administrators is needed to explain the newer roles for library media specialists in such areas as planning and curricular involvement.

2. Library media specialists should reassess their current activities and prepare to provide more input to administrative planning for LMC programs.

3. Administrators seem willing to allow LMSs the opportunity to make a more significant contribution to the curriculum if the LMS would seek it. LMSs need to study carefully the newer roles of curricular impact so they are ready for the opportunities that are made available.

CONCLUDING REMARKS FOR ADMINISTRATORS

Implications of this study for improving the role of the LMS are:

1. School administrators need to talk with the library media staff about the new role that library media specialists can play to enhance instruction. (Key words: instructional development, instructional design.)

2. Find a library media specialist practicing the new role and explore with the specialist, teachers, and administrators what impact is being made.

3. If a role change is in order, set a mutually agreed upon goal with your LMS at the beginning of the year and follow up to see that progress is made.

4. Share the information on agreed upon roles, goals, and objectives of the LMS program with teachers, students, and parents so that there is a common understanding of the LMC's purpose.

5. The part-time LMS is not likely to be able to function effectively in the new role of instructional development.

CONCLUDING REMARKS FOR DISTRICT LIBRARY MEDIA SUPERVISORS

Implications of this study for defining the role of the LMS and promoting understanding include:

1. Explore with professionals the roles of print and audiovisual services plus the new roles of instructional development and curricular involvement.

2. Roles in the local production of audiovisual materials needs exploration with both groups.

3. Remember that the administrators in this study expressed a willingness for the LMS role expansion but the LMS must be assertive in assuming this role.

4. Explore ways to close the gap in role perception in your schools.

5. Continue to work for full time professionals in every LMC with enough clerical staff to assume these new roles.

A PATHFINDER TO ROLE STUDIES
Sources for Further Study

INTRODUCTORY SOURCES:

Aaron, Shirley L. "Teaming for Learning." School Media Quarterly 4(Spring 1976): 215-218.

Beatty, La Mond F. "Do Media Specialists See Themselves as Others See Them?" Audiovisual Instruction 21(Nov. 1976): 44-45.

Grazier, Margaret H. "The Curriculum Consultant Role of the School Library Media Specialist." Library Trends 28(Fall 1979): 263-279.

Kerr, Stephen T. "Are There Instructional Developers in the Schools? A Sociological Look at the Development of a Profession." AV Communication Review 25(Fall 1977): 243-267.

Loertscher, David V., and Phyllis Land. "An Empirical Study of Media Services in Indiana Elementary Schools." School Media Quarterly 4(Fall 1975): 8-18.

IN-DEPTH STUDY:

For those who wish to study further, refer to:

Anderson, Carolyn Joyce. "Role Expectations of the High School Librarians as Perceived by Librarians, Principals, and Teachers." Ph.D. dissertation, University of Oregon, 1970.

Cantor, Phyllis F. "Role Expectations for Library Media Services Held by Library Media Specialists, School Administrators, and Teachers." D.L.S. dissertation, Columbia University, 1975.

Daniel, Evelyn H. "The Organizational Position of School Media Centers: An Analysis of the Role of the School Library and the School Librarian." Ph.D. dissertation, University of Maryland, 1974.

Pfister, Fred C., and Karen Alexander. Discrepancies Between Actual and Ideal Roles and Functions of Texas School Librarians as Perceived by School Superintendents, Principals, and Librarians: Report of a Study. Denton: North Texas State University, 1976. ERIC Document ED 134 188.

BIBLIOGRAPHIES:

Each of the "In-Depth Study" sources in this Pathfinder has an extensive bibliography and a review of the literature section which discusses the items cited.

Grazier, Margaret H. "The Curriculum Consultant Role of the School Library Media Specialist." Library Trends 28(Fall 1979): 263-279. See especially pages 276-279.

JOURNALS TO WATCH:

The major journal to watch is School Media Quarterly.

HUMAN RESOURCES:

One way to find someone familiar with LMS role studies is to check with schools of library and information science and identify a research-oriented faculty member associated with their school media program. State department of education consultants may also be helpful, either directly or by referring you to someone else.

PERSONS WHO WRITE ABOUT THIS TOPIC:

Margaret H. Grazier, Stephen T. Kerr.

COOPERATIVE LIBRARY SERVICES BETWEEN PUBLIC LIBRARIES AND SCHOOL LIBRARIES

Three Studies

Reported by

Blanche Woolls

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University of Pittsburgh

PREVIEW AND QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

Should comprehensive library services for students be offered in one agency (either the school library media center or the public library, but not both)?

What are the common elements found in successful combined school public library programs?

What types of communication and cooperation exist between public libraries and school libraries?

What services do students and teachers receive from their public library?

NOTES

Introduction

Introduction

The history of cooperation between individual schools and the local public library began with the early development of public libraries in this country; however, communication and cooperation between school library media centers and public libraries is much more recent. Prior to 1900 school libraries as we know them today had not been established. With the development of high school libraries and the placing of professional teacher-librarians in these schools, dialog was possible between the school library and the public library.

Cooperation between school and public libraries is a recent phenomenon.

Traditionally, school children have received library services through two agencies--the public library and the school. In some instances these patterns of services are established by the two agencies who work in isolation from each other. In other situations, cooperation exists between the two agencies from the top administration to the building level school library media specialist and the public library branch staffs throughout the public library system.

Traditionally school and public libraries have been separate agencies.

During this brief history of cooperation between schools and public libraries, it has often been suggested that library service in two agencies is a costly duplication. The next step in the discussion is to propose that the provision of services for all students be provided in one agency or the other, but not both. In instances where the community is sparsely populated, another suggestion is that library services should be provided in one agency even if that agency is located in a school building.

A merger of the two agencies is sometimes proposed.

The three research studies which follow attempt to provide information on the use of the public library by school-related clients, the use of the public library when housed in the school building, and the cooperation and communication which exists between the two agencies.

This review examines the success of cooperative activities by two separate agencies and in a combined school/public library setting.

THE AARON STUDY

Aaron Study Introduction

Aaron Study Introduction

The first study[1] answers the question, what are the common elements found in successful combined school public library programs? The merger of public and school libraries to improve services and to reduce expenditures is not a new idea. However, it reached a new impetus in Florida in 1977. In an effort to collect concrete data on past and present attempts at consolidation and to develop guidelines to be followed if such a merger is planned, a year-long three-phase study was undertaken.

What are the common elements of a successfully combined school/public library?

A 3-phase study was designed to identify success criteria.

Phase I involved development of evaluative instruments including an interview schedule and the visit to selected sites to determine success/failure factors. Phase II identified merger attempts in existence and analyzed them to determine the extent and types of cooperation among school public libraries in the state. Phase III presented a checklist for communities to apply when determining which would offer the best in library services for a community.

An extensive literature search was made. Both non-research based documents and research based documents were examined to find information in four categories: information pertaining to a specific site or sites; the concept of combination libraries; combination libraries; and materials reporting proceedings from conferences and other meetings which discussed combination libraries.

A literature search was made.

Seven sites were selected for visitation. Site selection was based upon availability of information about the site, existence of the program, and size of the community.

An instrument was developed to determine characteristics of the communities, the procedures used to plan and implement the combined program, the relationship of the combined program to (a) other libraries and (b) the government of the community, the advantages and disadvantages resulting from the combined program, and techniques for evaluating the combined program.

Community characteristics were studied.

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[1]Aaron, Shirley L. and Sue O. Smith. A Study of the Combined School Public Library. Tallahassee, FL: Phase I, 1977; Phase II, 1978; Phase III, 1978. ERIC Documents ED 150 986 and ED 174 231-232.

On-site visits permitted the gathering of in-depth, objective data through direct observation of the facility. Data were reported as case studies.

Information was collected concerning the number and location of combined programs, the circumstances under which these programs were initiated, the degree to which these programs are successful according to the criteria developed for the study, and the future outlook for these existing combined programs. Also, information was collected for the number and location of combined programs previously existing in the state of Florida and the reasons why these programs were dissolved.

On-site visits were made to combined libraries.

Aaron Study Findings

Successful programs divided children and adult areas in "separate" buildings or areas. The four unsuccessful sites were school-housed public libraries that were physically part of the school and services were offered in shared space.

Planning, for the successful programs, had much community involvement in and commitment to the decision to have the combined library. Citizens as well as library and school board members and other elected government officials participated in the planning. Governance of the library became the responsibility of a single board representing the concerned groups. A formal written agreement was adopted between the parties involved with carefully defined duties for each party. The librarian selected for the library had expertise and commitment to the concept. The location chosen was advantageous to both school and public libraries. If a new facility was constructed, professional library personnel planned with the architect throughout development and construction. Continuing efforts were made to get people to consider the combined program as an integrated whole rather than as separate school and public library programs operating in a common facility. The planning phase lasted three or more years.

Few legal restrictions existed, or such laws or legal rulings allowed exemptions so that formal written agreements could be developed.

Financial constraints were overcome when both school boards and public library boards contributed funding to these combined programs. Also, there was no documented evidence that combined libraries were more economical than separate programs.

Aaron Study Findings

Successfully combined school and public libraries had:

1. *separate children and adult areas;*
2. *heavy community involvement in planning;*
3. *a single board;*
4. *written agreements;*
5. *conveniently located facilities;*
6. *a true integration of programs;*
7. *at least three years of planning;*
8. *budget from school and other public sources;*

Materials were purchased centrally through one library or the other, depending upon the source of the funding. There was much emphasis on providing a well-balanced collection to support both sets of patrons. A special selection policy was developed, and anyone who wished could recommend titles to the library staff, although final authority for selection was held by the library staff.

Materials were shelved in separate areas for children and adults. There were no restrictions on the materials which any group could check out. Children were able to use the adult collection. While the successful programs did not generate an increase in the number of materials circulated, the unsuccessful programs showed a corresponding decrease in circulation.

Successful programs had more materials to circulate than unsuccessful programs. There was little duplication of materials because of the different requirements of school and community users. While savings did accrue because of the access of the community to audiovisual materials which had been available only at the school, many materials were not appropriate for the adult user.

Access to the combined program was available to all users at all times the library was open in the successful program. In these successful programs, 30 percent of staff time was devoted to students. In the unsuccessful programs this figure was as much as 60 to 80 percent. Some of the advantages for adults included extended hours and a wider range of materials.

More professional and clerical library personnel served in the successful programs. Professional librarians served both clientele--community and school. Problems arose when salary differentiations occurred for both professional and clerical staff, and when there were different holidays, annual leave days, and vacations.

The size of facilities housing successful programs was at least 2,000 square feet. Separate entrances were available for the community and the school.

The five common elements found in the successful programs were: emphasis on publicity, community involvement and interest, personality and level of commitment of the head librarian, adequate funding, and the ability of the school and public library boards to work closely together. One problem in the successful programs was the pressure on the library staff to provide a broad range of services needed by both clienteles. In successful programs, the activities were evenly divided between students and community users, while in the unsuccessful programs, there were more school-related activities. In spite of this "complaint" from the community, the

9. *a well balanced and carefully selected collection;*

10. *no borrowing restrictions;*

11. *larger collections;*

12. *easy access to staff by all age patrons;*

13. *extended hours and wider range of materials;*

14. *larger professional and clerical staffs; and*

15. *at least 2,000 square feet and separate entrances.*

Summary of success elements.

organizational pattern was felt to discourage the development of an adequate school library media program. In the successful programs, library personnel anticipated spending a greater amount of money for the same level of library services provided in separate school and public library programs.

THE GRUNAU STUDY

Grunau Study Introduction

Grunau Study Introduction

School and public library cooperation was studied in six rural communities in Kansas.

The second study[2] discusses the cooperation between school and public libraries in three configurations. Effective library service for citizens in small or rural communities is difficult because of limited human and material resources. This study identifies and describes the efforts made in six selected rural communities in Kansas in an attempt to offer desirable solutions to the problem of effective library service in a rural area.

Grunau Study Methodology

Grunau Study Methodology

Communities were chosen that were thought to be successful in integrating or cooperating to provide service.

Communities to be studied for this research were selected from responses on a questionnaire developed for a previous study of the relationship between the public library and the public school. Three categories or patterns of relationships were chosen: (1) the public library in or a part of the public school; (2) active cooperation between the public library and the public school library; and (3) the public library and the public school library as independent, perhaps complementary, operations. An attempt was made to select communities that were relatively successful under the designated plan of organization, and doing something to attack the problem of offering library service which might be replicated in another rural community.

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[2]Grunau, Allen R. An Investigation of Existing Approaches to the Problem of Providing Library Service in the Rural Kansas Community: A Study of the Interrelationships of the Public Library and the Public School in Selected Rural Communities of Kansas. Dissertation. University of Kansas, 1965.

Visits of one or two days were made to each of the six selected communities in an attempt to discuss specific successful library service techniques and to determine the settings for successful library programs. A variety of persons were interviewed at each location: librarians, school administrators, teachers, students, library patrons, school board members, library trustees, volunteer library workers, city officials, bankers, businessmen, and people on the street.

Visits were made and interviews were conducted.

Grunau Study Findings

Grunau Study Findings

The study pointed out a variety of attacks upon the problem of library service in rural communities. Some of these were successful and others were less successful. A major point was that a rural community can have library service if it desires to do so. Such programming requires the commitment and ingenuity of people in utilizing resources and funds.

Successful cooperation requires ingenuity in resource utilization.

No common solution existed for library service to rural communities. Each community provided unique answers for each situation.

No one solution was found.

Someone must initiate the establishment of library service. This person varied from community to community, e.g., the school superintendent in one location, the Parent-Teacher Association in another, and the combination of women's study clubs in another.

Leadership was essential.

Communities in some sparsely populated areas, it was suggested, might wish to join forces and establish bookmobile service. In others, a combination of resources could make public library services possible; for example, a public library financed and operated between a city and a county or a city, a township, and a school. Where possible, separate but cooperating library units are desirable. The answer to separate versus joint facilities was always clouded. If the community could support and operate supplementary and cooperating facilities, this was desirable. If not, a single facility might be the logical arrangement.

Various types of cooperation could be and were successful.

Noticeable funding improvement may be made when the financial responsibility is spread over an entire taxing district. School unification was remedying the spread of funds for separate school districts. A library systems bill (proposed at the time of this study) was a possible long-range remedy for the public library.

Larger tax bases helped.

The most vital element to the success of the library program may be the people involved.

The key to success was involved people.

No library collection can serve the needs of all. Interlibrary loan between libraries may extend the effectiveness of any local collection.

THE WOOLLS STUDY

Woolls Study Introduction

Woolls Study Introduction

The third study[3] assessed the cooperation and communication between public and school librarians in a single state. The study described the methods of communication, the cooperative activities, and the joint services existing between public libraries and public elementary schools in selected communities in Indiana. It also studied the relationship between the staff available, i.e., school library media specialists in elementary schools, or school library media supervisors for the school district, or children's librarians at the public library, or any combination of the three. This relationship was assessed to determine the cooperation, communication, and numbers of services offered between both agencies. An analysis of the success of collections in both types of libraries in meeting student research and reading needs was made.

Cooperation of school and public libraries in Indiana was studied.

Student use of the services of both agencies was studied.

Librarians were queried concerning their perceptions of barriers to cooperation and suggestions for increased service. Students were queried concerning their reading habits and perceptions of school library media center and public library services.

Woolls Study Methodology

Woolls Study Methodology

Cities which met each of four criteria were selected. Of the total of 32 communities which met the criteria, in only 24 did school superintendents and public librarians both agree to participate. For each city the children's librarian, or school library media specialist(s) (in selected schools) or school library media supervisors

Cooperation in 24 communities was studied.

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[3]Woolls, Esther Blanche. Cooperative Library Services to Children in Public Libraries and Public School Systems in Selected Communities in Indiana. Dissertation. Indiana University, 1973.

(when any combination of the three existed) completed questionnaires. In addition to this, a selected sample of fifth grade classrooms were surveyed. Sample schools were selected based upon the number of elementary schools in the school system. Fifth grade classes were chosen based upon the number of classes within the selected schools. A total of 68 schools, 2,473 students, 24 public librarians, 23 school library media specialists, and seven school library media supervisors were surveyed.

Questionnaires were given to librarians in both agencies.

Fifth grade students were surveyed.

Woolls Study Findings

Woolls Study Findings

The two most often indicated means of communication between the public library and the schools were the sending of publicity brochures to the schools and public librarians meeting with elementary school teachers. Another avenue of communication was membership in professional associations. All three types of librarians held membership in professional associations. All three types of librarians held membership in common with only three professional associations: American Library Association, Indiana Library Association, and the Indiana School Librarians Association. Seven public librarians met with school administrators; one met on a yearly basis, the other six met on an irregular basis.

Most common forms of communication included:

1. *publicity brochures;*
2. *joint staff meetings; and*
3. *professional association contacts.*

The least frequently indicated method of communication was that of the library media supervisor acting as liaison between the school system and the public library.

The most often named cooperative effort was in-service training sessions for teachers at the public library. The second ranked was coordination of library instruction. Classroom visits to the public library and classroom loans ranked next.

School and public library activities included:

1. *public library in-service for teachers;*
2. *coordinating library instruction; and*
3. *class visits to the public library.*

The highest number of methods of communication and cooperation activities occurred in a city with no children's librarian, but having school library media specialists and a library media supervisor. The smallest average number was in cities with no school library media specialists or school library media supervisor.

Four of the librarians considered the working relationships between the public library and the public schools as "poor"; 17 considered them to be "fair"; 19 considered them to be "good"; and nine considered them to be "excellent."

Nine of 24 considered their cooperation to be excellent.

Of the 23 schools surveyed which had school library media specialists, students were able to use the school library media center before and after school in 13. Six were open only before school and three were open only after school. The school library media center was open at lunch in 14 schools.

Nineteen of the 23 school library media specialists scheduled classes into the library media center. In most schools, books and magazines circulated to students, but circulation of other materials was limited. Time limit for borrowing materials for students was usually one week.

School library media centers were not located conveniently for evening access. Only two school library media centers had a direct access to the outside of the building, and only one school library media center was heated separately from the rest of the building. Eight of the 23 buildings were air-conditioned.

A total of 71.95 percent of all fifth-grade students surveyed had public library cards, and 75.07 percent of the students surveyed went to the public library. The greatest number of students surveyed accompanied a parent or a friend to the public library. Of the students who visited the public library, 35.79 percent used the library less than once a month. Only 7.87 percent went more than once a week, 17.05 percent went once a week, and 13.48 percent went once a month. There was no correlation between the distance of the public library from the school and the frequency of visits by students to the public library.

75 percent of the students used the public library usually with a parent or friend.

No correlation between frequency of students to the public library and its distance from home.

CONCLUDING REMARKS FOR AARON

For Public Librarians

Implications of this study for combining programs include:

1. A combined program may reduce the level of use by the community.

2. Adults must have separate areas in any combined facility.

3. Non-duplicative nature of programming does not cut staff or collection size.

4. Evaluation must be provided to determine the success or failure of the combined program.

5. There are specific guidelines to consider if a merger of services is anticipated.

For Administrators

Administrative considerations are:

1. Communities supporting separate types of libraries will be unlikely to offer better public or school library media service through a combined program.

2. Communities unable to provide minimum library services through separate facilities might offer improved services through a combined program under certain conditions.

3. A combined program is not a cheaper way to provide better library service.

4. Planning for combined service must take place within the context of planning total community services.

5. There are specific guidelines available to consider if a merger of service is anticipated.

For School Library Media Specialists

Implications for school library media specialists include:

1. The combined program must be an integrated program rather than separate programs housed in the same facility.

2. Evaluation must be provided to determine the success or failure of the combined program.

CONCLUDING REMARKS FOR GRUNAU

For Public Librarians

Implications for the public library:

1. The involvement of many local citizens in the planning, development, and maintenance of this library is essential.

2. The assignment of library board members to active roles in the responsibility for cooperation is a good technique.

For Administrators

Administrative considerations are:

1. Some of the most urgently needed leadership for community libraries and community library development can come from the schools.

For School Library Media Specialists

Implications for local schools are:

1. School library media specialists may be the only professionally trained librarians in a given community.

2. School library media specialists may provide the needed dynamic leadership for the establishment of community services.

CONCLUDING REMARKS FOR WOOLLS

For Public Librarians

Implications for the public library:

1. Librarians should initiate formal meetings with school administrators, school library media specialists, and teachers when none occur.

For Administrators

Administrative considerations are:

1. Where separate public and school library media services are maintained, regular communication between public librarians and school library media specialists is a must.

For School Library Media Specialists

Implications for local schools are:

1. District library media specialists should establish communication links and when the district level position does not exist, the school library media specialists should take the lead.

A PATHFINDER TO SCHOOL LIBRARY AND PUBLIC LIBRARY COOPERATION

SCOPE NOTE:

Discussions of school library and public library cooperation range from reports of research to "How-we-do-it-good" articles. A representative sample of this spectrum is given here.

INTRODUCTORY SOURCES:

Barron, Daniel. "Role of the School Media Program and Specialist in Community Education." School Media Quarterly 7(Fall 1978): 12-18.

Fleming, Lois D. "Public and School Libraries: Partners in the 'Big' Picture." School Media Quarterly 7(Fall 1978): 25-30.

Shirk, John. "Public Librarians Look at Community Education: What Is the Role?" School Media Quarterly 7(Fall 1978): 19-24.

Some landmark historical discussions include:

Adams, Charles Francis. "The Public Library and the Public Schools." American Library Journal 1(Aug. 31, 1877): 437-441.

Student Use of Libraries: An Inquiry into the Needs of Students, Libraries, and the Educational Process. Chicago: American Library Association, 1964.

Dewey, Melvil. "New Library Development of the National Education Association." Public Libraries 1(Sept. 1896): 183.

Martin, Lowell A. Students and the Pratt Library: Challenge and Opportunity. Baltimore: Enoch Pratt Free Library, July 1963.

IN-DEPTH STUDY:

Humphry, John A. Library Cooperation: The Brown University Study of University-School Community Library Coordination in the State of Rhode Island. Providence: Brown University Press, 1963.

Stallman, Esther J. Public Library Service to Public School Children: Its Administration in Large American Cities. Ph.D. dissertation. Graduate Library School, University of Chicago, 1942.

Wert, James E. "The Effectiveness of the Public-School Housed Library Branch." Library Quarterly 7(Oct. 1937): 537-545.

Wezeman, Frederick. Combination School and Public Libraries: A Study with Recommendations. Harrisburg: The Pennsylvania State Library, August 1965.

White, Ruth M. The School-Housed Public Library: A Survey, Public Library Reporter No. 11. Chicago: American Library Association, 1963.

Woolard, Wilma Lee. "A Study of the School/Public Concept: Summary, Conclusions, and Recommendations." Illinois Libraries 60(March 1978): 281-289.

JOURNALS TO WATCH:

The topic of school library and public library relationships is of constant interest and appears irregularly, but often. Information can be found easily in international, national, and local publications which are indexed in Library Literature under "Public Libraries--Services to Schools" and "School and Public Relationship."

HUMAN RESOURCES:

The way to locate persons interested in and active in school library and public library relationships would be to contact the authors of articles in current publications. For research assistance one could identify school faculty members or research staff in schools of library and information science, staff members in state departments of education assigned to school library media programs, and staffs of state library agencies.

PERSONS WHO WRITE ABOUT THIS TOPIC INCLUDE:

Shirley Aaron and James A. Kitchens.

ON CHANGE AND THE CHANGE PROCESS

by

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PREVIEW AND QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

Instituting a change is quite complex. However, with an appropriate understanding of change strategies, the library media specialist can be an effective change agent.

What personal processes does an individual go through when a change occurs?

How does one plan and implement a change?

What are some of the characteristics of a change which will increase the likelihood that it will be adopted?

NOTES

Introduction

Change is a vital part of American education. Through the incorporation of new ideas and methods into the educational curriculum, educators hope to improve the quality of education and thus help students to deal with their ever-changing environment. No aspect of education or any individual is immune to change. This is especially true for the library media specialist and the emergent concept of the library media center. Recent advances in technology, instructional development, and the increased availability of new instructional media and materials, have motivated the library media specialist to consider the nature of changes in the organization of the school which would be necessary to make more creative use of the library media center. In order to be an effective change agent, the LMS should be aware of change strategies and research regarding the nature of change. The purpose of this report will be to provide a synthesis of some of that research, as well as a description of specific aspects of change and the change process which should be kept in mind as the LMS attempts to initiate an educational change in the school.

Introduction

Change is an important tool in improving education.

LMSs can assume newer roles if the nature of change is understood.

This report analyzes strategies for change from research.

Educational change is a dynamic process which has many facets. On the one hand, an educational change involves people and requires them somehow to behave in a manner different than their previous behavior. This aspect of change might be called the personal dimension. In addition, the school organization can participate to plan and implement an educational change. This dimension might be called the organizational dimension. The technological dimension of change is concerned with the way in which the very nature of the change itself will either facilitate or hinder its adoption. In order for us to develop a more informed understanding of change in the change process, let us consider the personal, organizational, and technological dimensions of change in greater detail.

Change has three main aspects:

1. *The personal dimension.*
2. *The organizational dimension.*
3. *The technological dimension.*

The Methodology of Change

Methodology of Change

Personal Dimension

Personal Dimension

Personal Dimension. Individual change is a very personal process. Research suggests that although most people desire change, they find it difficult to change, and so may resist a specific change. Lewin[1] has conceptualized this personal dimension of change by likening an individual to a block of ice. Ice in its frozen

Lewin's ideas:

1. *Individuals can be likened to ice blocks. Change requires an unfreezing and then a refreezing.*

[1]Lewin, Kurt. "Quasi-Stationary Social Equilibrium and the Problem of Permanent Change." In W. Bennis, K. Benne, and R. Chin, (eds.), The Planning of Change. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1961, pp. 235-238.

state remains unchanged; it is fixed, solid. The nature of ice can be changed through unfreezing. Once the ice is thawed it can be changed and molded into a new shape and then refrozen. Lewin believes that a person wishing to change must first unfreeze, modify the nature of a behavior, and then refreeze to provide stability for that behavior pattern. Lewin further believes that individuals decide in a rational manner which changes to implement and which changes to ignore. Each change has certain "driving forces" which facilitate the adoption of the change, making it more personally desirable to an individual, and also "restraining forces" which inhibit the change process and make it undesirable for the individual to adopt. In considering which change to adopt, each individual consciously or subconsciously analyzes the nature of those driving and restraining forces associated with the change and decides to adopt a change only when the driving forces significantly outweigh the restraining forces. In order to analyze the nature and potency of these driving and restraining forces Lewin has developed a technique which he calls force field analysis. This technique allows individuals to plot the nature and potency of each force and calculate the degree to which an individual change might succeed.

2. *Individuals react rationally to driving forces and restraining forces as they approach a change.*

3. *Driving forces must outweigh restraining forces if change is to occur.*

4. *Force field analysis is a technique developed to forecast personal change.*

The change process for any one individual can be quite time consuming and lengthy. Havelock[2] has conceptualized a 6-stage procedure of individual or group change. Stage 1 is that of awareness, during which an individual becomes knowledgeable about a specific change. In the next step, interest, the individual seeks more information about the change and begins to develop some positive and/or negative attitudes towards it. Stage 3 is the evaluation stage. In this stage an individual mentally evaluates the uses of the new procedure, as well as the advantages or disadvantages of adopting the procedure. Trial is the fourth stage, during which an individual actually tries out the procedure on a pilot basis. If this stage is successful, then the individual enters into the adoption stage, in which he or she adopts the new procedure and implements it fully. Once the change has been fully adopted, the individual considers it part of his or her normal routine. This total internalization is termed the integration stage. As we can see from Havelock's analysis, the process of personal change is quite complex. An individual may choose to adopt or reject a change at any one of the six stages. Not until all six stages have been successfully completed does the change become a part of the person's normal behavior.

Havelock's ideas:

Change has a six-stage procedure:

1. *Awareness*
2. *Interest*
3. *Evaluation*
4. *Trial*
5. *Adoption*
6. *Integration*

An individual may resist a specific change for many personal reasons. Research suggests that the following are quite important:

Research shows that individuals resist change because of:

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[2]Havelock, R. G. The Change Agent's Guide to Innovation in Education. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Educational Technology Publications, 1973.

1. Habit. We are all creatures of habit and do not readily wish to give up the comfort and security associated with routine.

2. Violations of norms, prestige, values, or customs. Both individual and group aspects of these variables provide structure for our life. We are unwilling to engage in a change if it requires us to alter or reject values, customs, or norms which we hold dear.

3. A lack of understanding. Many individuals may lack a full understanding of the nature of the change and its implications for them, and are, therefore, unwilling to risk attempting the new procedure.

4. A lack of skill. Sometimes individuals might seek to change but do not know how to change or have the technical skills necessary to implement a specific change.

5. A lack of incentive. Individuals may find a specific change easy to adopt but are not motivated to change because there is no reward for doing so. People do not readily change for change's sake but must perceive a real personal, financial, instructional, or organizational reason for the change.

1. *Habit.*

2. *Violations of norms/ values.*

3. *Lack of understanding.*

4. *Lack of skill.*

5. *Lack of incentive.*

Although the personal dimension of change is quite involved and potentially time consuming, it need not be difficult. Individuals do change and are more motivated to change when the change process proceeds in an orderly and systematic fashion. In order for us to understand better the nature of the change process let us now consider the organizational dimension of change.

Organizational Dimension. For educational change to take place the school administration must facilitate the planning, implementation, evaluation, and institutionization of the change as well as decide whom to involve in the change process. A change effort will be more effectively implemented when it is carefully planned, implemented, and facilitated within the organizational structure of the school. The planning and implementation process for change consists of the following eight steps:

Organizational Dimension

Change can take place in an organization if it is carefully planned and includes:

1. Conduct a serious needs assessment. In this step data are collected which describe the degree to which the school is accomplishing its goals. A need exists in those areas where the data suggests a gap between actual performance and the goals of the school.

1. *A needs assessment.*

2. Identify the central problem and target group. In this step the needs assessment data are examined to determine what specific aspect of the school, its curriculum, or its instructional program needs to be changed, as well as the target group within the school that must alter its behavior in order for the change to take place.

3. Examine alternatives. Through brainstorming, individuals involved in the change process examine all of the alternatives which could possibly be used to address the problem identified in Step 2. The attempt here is to obtain a wide selection of potential solutions to the problem.

4. Determine organizational constraints. Each school has specific organizational constraints which limit the degree to which any one change can be adopted, or if adopted, could be effective. Examples of such constraints are political factors, economic factors, physical space, time, size of staff, and the nature of school goals and objectives.

5. Select best alternative. In this step each alternative identified (Step 3) should be examined in relationship to the constraints (Step 4) identified for that particular school. The alternative which is least affected by the identified constraints is by definition the best alternative since it allows the school to maximize its resources.

6. Implement the best solution. The implementation process is the very heart of the educational change. It takes into account the personal processes already described in the preceding section. Furthermore, it takes into account the necessary training which individuals might need in order to adopt the change, as well as ongoing support which may be necessary throughout the course of the change effort.

7. Evaluate the change. Two types of evaluation are discussed in the literature. Formative evaluation is an ongoing process evaluation through which the change is periodically examined to determine whether or not the change process itself is functioning smoothly. Data collected in this formative evaluation can help make mid-course corrections in the change effort. Such corrections increase the likelihood that the change effort will ultimately achieve its goal. Summative evaluation is an end product evaluation which determines the degree to which the change effort ultimately achieved its goal.

2. *Identifying a problem and a target group.*

3. *Examining alternatives.*

4. *Determining constraints.*

5. *Selecting alternatives.*

6. *Implementing solutions.*

7. *Evaluating the change.*

8. Institutionalize and maintain the change. Once a change has been adopted within a school it must be continually reinforced and institutionalized. Unless this change is continually reinforced, so much so that it becomes standard operating procedure, school personnel might seek to return to their former behavior patterns.

8. Maintaining the change.

Another important organizational consideration in the change process is the decision regarding whom to involve. This involvement process should begin as soon as possible and be maintained throughout the entire planning and implementation phases of the change process. Of central importance to the change process is the school principal. The administrator should be involved in the change because he or she controls the organizational structure of the school which can be used to either facilitate or inhibit the implementation of a change. The administrator is also responsible for developing a supportive change climate. In addition to the school principal the change process should involve those teachers and other school staff who will be affected by the change. This involvement is necessary in order to provide support for the change itself, to facilitate the examination of change alternatives, and ultimately to facilitate the implementation of the change. It is also possible that the school might wish to involve outside experts to facilitate the change process.

The school principal is a key person in school organizational change.

Research on the organizational dimension of an educational change suggests attention to the following eight areas will increase the likelihood of a change being adopted:

Research suggests that an organizational change has a chance for success if it:

1. Define specific goals for the change effort itself. The identification of such goals provides focus for the change process and a measure by which to determine whether the change has been implemented successfully.

1. Has a specific goal.

2. Define, discuss, and develop consensus regarding the nature of the change. Unless all parties involved in the change understand the true implications of the change, they will not be able to cooperate in its implementation. The time spent in developing consensus regarding the nature of the change and its implications will pay great dividends during the implementation process.

2. Has the consensus of the group involved.

3. Relate the change to real organizational needs and not personal bias. Unless the change is perceived as solving a real organizational need, it will not be successful. Individuals do not wish to change for the sake of

3. Relates to the needs of the organization.

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change, but are willing to consider a change if it improves the delivery of educational services or the efficiency of the educational process.

4. Involve all people who will be affected by the change. This involvement process is essential to the successful implementation of the change. Individuals who are not involved will be less likely to support the change or alter their personal behavior.

4. Involves all affected persons.

5. Anticipate the personal anxiety with which all individuals approach change, and develop strategies for dealing with that anxiety. It is only natural for individuals to be concerned about the change process and the personal effects of that change. Any change strategy should anticipate this personal anxiety and develop procedures to help individuals cope with it.

5. Anticipates and deals with personal anxiety.

6. Provide adequate initial training and follow-up support. A one or two day workshop is not sufficient training for most educational changes. Educational change which requires major alterations in individual behavior might necessitate in-depth prior training. In addition, continued training and support throughout the change process facilitates the degree to which the change is ultimately adopted.

6. Is accompanied by training and support.

7. Allow adequate time for the change to take place. Change does not take place overnight. Realistic estimates of the change process should be considered.

7. Allows time for the change.

8. Structure appropriate feedback. Research suggests that the more feedback teachers receive regarding how they are being successful in implementing an educational change, the more highly motivated they are to continue in the change process. This feedback also assists individuals in determining whether or not they are implementing the change in an appropriate or correct manner.

8. Provides for feedback.

Technological Change. There are different types of educational changes. For example, a change may be directed at altering a teacher's knowledge, or the behavior of a teacher. Changes in the organizational structure of the school and/or its curriculum system are examples of additional types of change. The nature of the change itself is related to the degree to which that change will be adopted. Some changes are more difficult to adopt and take more time. Changes in an individual's knowledge or in specific organizational practices of a school are less difficult and

Technological Change

The process of change can be considered as a technology.

less time consuming than changes in individual attitudes. Furthermore, changes in attitudes are much easier to accomplish than changes in the person's behavior, or alternately, a group's behavior. An understanding of the nature of the change to be adopted will facilitate the planning and implementation of the change process itself. Such an understanding views the specific nature of the change process itself as a technology which must be adopted. The various technological aspects of this change can either facilitate or inhibit its ultimate adoption in the schools.

An examination of research dealing with the technological aspects of change indicates that a change is more likely to be adopted if:

1. The nature of the change is closely related to current educational practices or builds upon existing practices.
2. The nature of the change is closely related to the history of the school.
3. The nature of the change is related to the norms, values, and customs of the school staff.
4. The nature of the change does not dramatically threaten the autonomy or security of individuals or groups within the school.
5. The change itself reduces the current burdens, tasks, or responsibilities of school staff.
6. The change itself provides a new experience which is of interest to school staff.
7. The change is structured so that it can be readily modified.
8. The change is not expensive, and will not require large equipment purchases.
9. The nature of the change is simple rather than overly complex.

A change is more likely to be adopted if it:

1. *Is closely related to present practice.*
2. *Has historical antecedents.*
3. *Is related to present values.*
4. *Does not threaten security or autonomy.*
5. *Reduces work or responsibility.*
6. *Provides an interesting new experience.*
7. *Is not set in concrete.*
8. *Is cheap.*
9. *Is simple.*

Although these factors regarding the nature of the change itself are related to the degree to which the change will be adopted, they do not prohibit change. Very complex changes can be implemented, but they are more difficult, time consuming, and expensive. An understanding of the nature of the change will assist the change

agent in structuring an appropriate change process which recognizes the difficulties inherent in the change, and takes into account strategies for overcoming those difficulties.

Findings

It has been the purpose of this report to help the LMS understand the nature of change. The report has described the personal, organizational, and technological dimensions of change, and has summarized the implications of research about each of these dimensions for the nature of the change process itself. It is hoped that through a better understanding of change and the change process, the LMS can help the school make fuller use of the library media center, as well as the skills and abilities of the LMS.

Findings

An understanding of the change process is a key for the library media specialist seeking change.

CONCLUDING REMARKS FOR LIBRARY MEDIA SPECIALISTS

1. Understand the dynamics of the change process.

2. Involve the principal, teachers, and other school staff.

3. Anticipate and deal with teacher and administrator anxiety.

4. Provide all concerned with as much information as available on the nature of the change itself.

5. Be willing to be of assistance in whatever way possible.

6. Be willing to demonstrate successful behaviors required of the change.

CONCLUDING REMARKS FOR TEACHERS

1. Be willing to give the change a fair chance.

2. Assist in examining alternatives for the change.

3. Give honest feedback regarding the degree to which the change is being implemented.

4. Provide emotional and personal support for others involved in the change.

CONCLUDING REMARKS FOR PRINCIPALS

1. Develop a school climate which encourages change.

2. Provide appropriate time, money, and other resources necessary to assure change.

3. Be willing to alter organizational aspects of the school to facilitate the change.

4. Help all school staff to work together to accomplish change.

5. Develop appropriate communication and feedback structures.

6. Develop and conduct appropriate formative and summative evaluations.

A PATHFINDER TO CHANGE

SCOPE NOTE:

In order for library media specialists to become effective change agents, they must understand the personal, organizational, and technological dimension of change. Each of these aspects has implications for the process used to implement a change, as well as the degree to which that process will be successful.

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Gross, Neal, Joseph B. Giaguinta, and Marilyn Bernstein. Implementing Organizational Innovations. New York: Basic Books, 1971.

Herriott, Robert E. and Neal Gross, eds. The Dynamics of Planned Educational Change. Berkeley, CA: McCutcheon Publishing Co., 1979.

Rogers, E. M. and F. F. Shoemaker. Communication of Innovation: A Cross Cultural Approach. New York: Free Press, 1971.

JOURNALS TO WATCH:

Library media journals such as School Library Journal and Instructional Innovator are packed with ideas to try. Journals which treat change itself include Change, Planning and Change, and Phi Delta Kappan.

HUMAN RESOURCES:

Talk over your intended changes with other library media specialists who have attempted to implement a change. University professors of educational administration have expertise in personal and organizational change. State department personnel in ESEA Title III or Title IV division might also be of assistance.